

1   **The potential for endozoochorous dispersal of temperate fen plant species**  
2   **by free-roaming horses**

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4   Peter A. Stroh, Francine M. R. Hughes & J. Owen Mountford

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6   **Stroh, P.A.** (corresponding author, peter.stroh@anglia.ac.uk) & **Hughes, F.M.R.**

7   (francine.hughes@anglia.ac.uk): Animal and Environment Research Group, Department of

8   Life Sciences, Anglia Ruskin University, East Road, Cambridge CB1 1PT

9   **Mountford, J.O.** (om@ceh.ac.uk): NERC Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Maclean

10   Building, Benson Lane, Crowmarsh Gifford, Wallingford, OX10 8BB, UK

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26 **Abstract**

27 **Questions:** Can free-roaming Konik horses digest and subsequently disperse seeds of plant  
28 species growing in a temperate fen environment? Which species have the potential to be  
29 dispersed internally (endozoochory), and do they share common plant and seed traits? How  
30 could potential dispersal via endozoochory impact upon grazing management and the natural  
31 recolonisation of wetland vegetation at a landscape scale?

32 **Location:** Wicken Fen National Nature Reserve (NNR), Cambridge, UK.

33 **Materials and Methods:** Twelve dung samples were collected for one calendar year (June  
34 2009-May 2010) from a free-roaming herd of Konik horses grazing vegetation at Wicken Fen  
35 NNR. Germinable seed content of the dung was determined by means of a seedling  
36 emergence study. Species presence and estimated cover/abundance were recorded for the  
37 grazed (background) vegetation in spring and summer 2009.

38 **Results:** Almost one third of all species present in the background vegetation were also  
39 identified in the dung samples. There was an equal split between graminoids and forbs, but  
40 substantially more graminoid germinable seeds. Species were dispersed year round, with the  
41 number of species peaking in September and again in December. Of the thirteen traits  
42 measured, there were significant differences between dung and background vegetation for  
43 seven traits. Mean values for seed release heights (minimum and maximum) and dispersule  
44 weight were significantly lower in species found in the dung, whilst dung species had  
45 significantly greater numbers of seeds per shoot, inferred Ellenberg nitrogen and light values,  
46 and seed bank persistence. Explanations for the significantly different species traits in the  
47 dung compared with the standing vegetation included adaptation for surviving the digestive  
48 process and dispersal strategies. Species traits associated with endozoochorous dispersal  
49 shared similarities with the traits necessary for survival in the soil seed bank.

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50 **Conclusion:** Year-round free-roaming grazing was shown to have the potential to make a  
51 considerable contribution to long-range dispersal of species growing in temperate fen  
52 habitats, and is likely to complement alternative dispersal strategies. However, germination  
53 and establishment of species post-dispersal will be governed by a wide range of  
54 environmental conditions.

55

56 **Keywords**

57 Konik; landscape scale; plant traits; seedling emergence; wetland restoration; Wicken Fen

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75 **Introduction**

76 Large herbivores can contribute to species dispersal via the ingestion and subsequent  
77 defecation of plant propagules (endozoochory) (Janzen 1984; Vellend et al. 2003).  
78 Germinable seed were observed to be retained in deer for more than three days (Vellend et al.  
79 2003), cattle for two to three days (Simao Neto et al. 1987) and horses for up to twelve days  
80 (Janzen 1982). Consequently, and depending on the home range of the grazing animal,  
81 consumed seeds have the potential to be deposited in dung many kilometres from the parent  
82 plant (Pakeman 2001).

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83 Free-roaming wild herbivores would once have played an important role in the postglacial  
84 transportation of species across large distances (Heinken et al. 2002; Mouissie et al. 2004;  
85 Jaroszewicz et al. 2009). In more recent times, traditional grazing practices involving the  
86 seasonal movement of domesticated livestock (e.g. transhumance; droving) would have  
87 facilitated the dispersal of species along defined migration routes (Duffey 1968; Bruun &  
88 Fritzboøger 2002). However, there have been substantial changes to or abandonment of  
89 traditional grazing systems over much of north-west Europe throughout the twentieth century  
90 (Laiolo et al. 2004; Peco et al. 2005; Poschlod, Bakker & Kahmen 2005).

91 Changes in grazing practices have coincided with the widespread destruction of temperate  
92 fen ecosystems (Moore 1997; Jansen 2000), so that fragments of remnant fen habitat are now  
93 isolated within a highly modified landscape. The loss of dispersal vectors and  
94 metacommunities [regional species pools connected by dispersal mechanisms (Leibold et al.  
95 2004)] reduces the probability of populations colonising or recolonising an area (MacArthur  
96 & Wilson 1967; Hanski 1998) and therefore increases the probability of local extinctions  
97 (Harrison et al. 2000). The survival chances of species populations is therefore likely to be  
98 enhanced for those species that are able to disperse across long distances (Ozinga et al. 2004)  
99 and into suitable habitat. The ability to disperse over long distances is also likely to be

100 advantageous in the face of future climate change. There is, therefore, a pressing need to a)  
101 re-establish connectivity between intact nature reserves or to substantially expand reserve  
102 boundaries through habitat restoration and b) quantify the long-distance (i.e. >100m  
103 following Cain et al. 2000) dispersal potential of plant species to better inform the strategies  
104 used in restoration.

105 In an attempt to repair ecological fragmentation, habitat restoration projects are  
106 increasingly taking place over a landscape-scale (e.g. Wigbels 2000; Colston 2004). In south  
107 east lowland UK, a number of such projects have been initiated in low-lying areas of fenland  
108 that were drained for agriculture in the seventeenth century. These projects aim to increase  
109 the area of wetland habitats and the levels of connectivity in the landscape. However,  
110 dispersal vectors such as hydrochory (e.g. natural flooding events) which would have been  
111 present in these low lying fen areas are now almost absent in the landscape due to increased  
112 flood control, and many species classified as wind dispersed (e.g. Kleyer et al. 2008) have  
113 been shown to rarely travel >100m from the parent plant (Bullock & Clarke 2000; Jongejans  
114 & Telenius 2001; Tackenberg et al. 2003). Consequently, the contribution of large  
115 herbivorous mammals to the long range dispersal of fen vegetation may be of considerable  
116 importance to the developing habitats in the new landscape-scale restoration projects.

117 Plant functional traits associated with successful internal dispersal of diaspores are  
118 hypothesised to be linked with edible seed casings, seed weight, seed shape and resistance to  
119 digestive processes (e.g. Janzen 1984; Pakeman et al. 2002; Couvreur et al. 2005). Numerous  
120 studies have examined the potential for endozoochorous seed dispersal across a range of dry  
121 grassland and heathland habitats (Welch 1985; Middleton & Mason 1992; Malo & Suárez  
122 1995; Miller 1996; Eichberg et al. 2007; Kuiters & Huiskes 2010). However, there are very  
123 few studies concentrating on endozoochorous transport within wetland systems (Pakeman et  
124 al. 2002), and none within a temperate fen environment. In order to learn more about the

125 potential for livestock to carry out long-range dispersal of plants associated with such  
126 habitats, the main objectives of the study described here were to:

- 127 1. Determine the viable seed content of dung collected from free-roaming Koniks  
128 grazing a species-rich UK fenland National Nature Reserve (NNR)
- 129 2. Examine temporal variation in dung species composition
- 130 3. Investigate the similarities and differences between species transported by  
131 endozoochory and background vegetation traits
- 132 4. Discuss the implications for grazing management and landscape-scale restoration

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## 134 **Methods**

### 135 *Study site*

136 Wicken Fen National Nature Reserve (NNR), situated 25 kilometres north of Cambridge  
137 (UK) (52°18'24N, 0°16'51E), is one of the last undrained remnants of what would once have  
138 been a vast interconnected landscape of floodplain mire in lowland East Anglia some  
139 3,850km<sup>2</sup> in size (Moore 1997). The NNR is 159 hectares (ha) in size and contains plant  
140 assemblages associated with low fertility floodplain fens on undrained alkaline peat  
141 (McCartney & de la Hera 2004), including fen meadow, sallow carr and tall-herb fen. The  
142 study site is located within a 56.2ha unfenced section of the reserve known as 'Verralls Fen',  
143 which is bounded on all sides by water-filled ditches. Following substantial scrub clearance  
144 operations from 2000-2001, the area has been extensively grazed year-round by a free-  
145 roaming herd of Polish Konik ponies (henceforth referred to as Koniks, as the Polish word  
146 *konik* translates as "horse" or "pony"). Koniks were introduced because of similarities to the  
147 original Eurasian wild horse, including a resilient immune system, tolerance for harsh and  
148 wet conditions and an ability to graze coarse vegetation.

### 149 *Wicken Fen Vision*

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150 The Wicken Fen Vision is a landscape-scale restoration project bordering the NNR. The  
151 project is in the process of acquiring c.3000 ha of land to begin to address the problems of  
152 species isolation and dispersal. Restoration of vegetation within the project areas is based on  
153 an 'open ended' approach (Hughes et al. 2011) which promotes natural colonisation by flora  
154 and fauna and the repair (*sensu* Whisenant 1999) of ecosystem structure and biodiversity to  
155 establish ecosystem resilience (Breedlow et al. 1988), rather than seeking to replicate historic  
156 reference systems. The restoration areas are also grazed by Koniks but are not currently  
157 linked to the NNR. In anticipation that this link may one day be made, this study investigated  
158 the seeds in the dung of the horses grazing Verralls Fen on the NNR to explore the potential  
159 for these horses to transfer species from the NNR to the restoration land.

#### 160 *Dung sampling*

161 Dung from the Konik herd (which numbered 13 animals in total) was collected on seven  
162 separate occasions (once every three weeks) throughout the main plant fruiting season  
163 between the months of June and October 2009. On each visit, samples were collected from  
164 the first three Koniks to defecate. Five additional visits to collect horse dung were  
165 undertaken at regular intervals outside of the main fruiting season so that an analysis for a full  
166 calendar year could be undertaken. To avoid contamination by wind-blown seed, only dung  
167 which was observed as freshly deposited was collected. The lowermost layer was left behind  
168 to avoid contamination by seed lying on the soil surface. Fresh dung collected at each visit  
169 was homogenised and immediately placed in cold storage (constant 3°C) for four weeks to  
170 promote stratification. Samples were then spread thinly and fully dried in a sealed room at a  
171 constant 30°C for 5 to 7 days. Once dried, a sub-sample of 1kg (dry weight) representing a  
172 single site visit (hereafter referred to as a 'sample') was stored at -20°C to maintain seed  
173 viability (following Linington 2003) until commencement of the seedling emergence  
174 experiment in April 2010.

175 *Germinable seed content*

176 In April 2010, all samples (n=12) were transferred to a glasshouse located within Cambridge  
177 University Botanic Gardens. Before placing the material into seed trays, each sample was  
178 separated into four sub-samples of 250g (dry weight) and homogenised in a volume of  
179 distilled water (following Kuiters & Huiskes 2010). The resultant 'slurry' was then spread in  
180 a thin layer onto a mixture of sand and sterilised peat (1:1). Trays without dung samples  
181 were also present to detect germination from the compost and dispersal into the greenhouse.  
182 This method is similar to the one devised by ter Heerdt et al. (1996), but does not employ the  
183 use of fine sieves due to the high content of dead vegetative matter present in the dung.  
184 Preparation of dry dung by grinding was not used as this may damage large seeds (Cosyns &  
185 Hoffman 2005a).

186 Seed trays (n=48, excluding controls) were placed on capillary matting and regularly  
187 watered from below. Seedlings were identified at the earliest stage possible, recorded and  
188 then removed. Seedling emergence was recorded for six months. Species that we were not  
189 able to identify at seedling stage were potted on and identified when diagnostic features  
190 became visible.

191 *Background vegetation*

192 A comprehensive list of all species (following Stace 2010) present in the vegetation  
193 (hereafter referred to as the background vegetation) was recorded in spring and summer 2009.  
194 Cover/abundance for the entirety of the study area was estimated for each background species  
195 through the undertaking of a series of line-transect walks within the study area.  
196 Cover/abundance was estimated using the DOMIN scale (1 = <4% (few individuals); 2 =  
197 <4% (several individuals); 3 = <4% (many individuals); 4 = 4–10%; 5 = 11–25%; 6 = 26–  
198 33%; 7 = 34–50%; 8 = 51–75%; 9 = 76–90%; 10 = 91–100%). However, the size of the  
199 grazed area (56ha) within which horses were free to graze and the subsequent uncertainty



200 surrounding where and when species had been consumed meant that a strict quantitative  
201 comparison of species occurring in the background vegetation and those germinating from  
202 the dung was not possible. Species presence/absence data were therefore used to compare  
203 functional traits of species that were found in the dung with traits of species that were in the  
204 background vegetation

#### 205 *Data analysis*

206 Species functional traits were chosen to reflect both seed characteristics found to be  
207 important in endozoochory in the literature and plant characteristics that influence choice of  
208 species grazed by horses. Information on species functional traits was gathered from three  
209 principal sources. Inferred Ellenberg values for nitrogen (N), light (L) and moisture (F) were  
210 taken from PLANTATT (Hill et al. 2004). Dispersule weight, shape, and Competitor-Stress  
211 tolerator-Ruderal (C-S-R *sensu* Grime 1977) characteristics was taken from the Electronic  
212 Comparative Plant Ecology (Grime, Hodgson & Hunt 2007). Information on seed bank  
213 longevity, seed release heights and number of seed produced per shoot was assembled from  
214 the LEDA traitbase (Kleyer et al. 2008). Vegetation classification (following Rodwell 1991)  
215 for dung species content was carried out using the programme MAVIS [Modular Analysis of  
216 Vegetation Information Systems] (Smart 2000).

217 Following the amalgamation of seed tray data for each sample, mean trait values for each  
218 dung sample (n=12) were calculated by presence of species in each sample and the trait score.  
219 Mean trait values for background vegetation were calculated by presence of all recorded  
220 species and the trait score. One-sample t-tests were performed to test for differences in dung  
221 and background vegetation traits. For each trait, the mean for each sample (n=12) was used  
222 to test against a hypothesised mean. For the purpose of this analysis, the background  
223 vegetation mean replaced zero as the hypothesised mean. Statistical analyses were carried

**Comment [mh1]:** Compare non-germinating background vegetation species with germinating background vegetation species



224 out using Minitab v.14. Abundance data from the seedling emergence study was used to  
225 examine temporal patterns in dung species content.

## 226 Results

227 The background vegetation in the grazed study area comprised 135 species recorded across a  
228 complex mosaic of four main vegetation types; *Peucedano-Phragmitetum australis* tall-herb  
229 fen, *Cirsio-Molinietum* fen meadow, *Phragmitetum australis* reed bed and *Cladietum marisci*  
230 sedge-beds (Table 1). Background species with an estimated cover/abundance of  $\geq 10\%$   
231 across the 56ha site included graminoids such as *Juncus subnodulosus*, *Calamagrostis*  
232 *epigejos*, *Calamagrostis canescens*, *Cladium mariscus*, *Phragmites australis*, *Phalaris*  
233 *arundinacea*, *Poa trivialis* and *Molinia caerulea*. Many graminoids and forbs which were  
234 recorded at the study site were locally abundant within areas of  $\leq 1$ ha, but did not comprise  
235  $\geq 10\%$  cover/abundance when the study area was considered as an entire unit. Two forbs  
236 (*Thyselium palustre* and *Lathyrus palustris*) categorised by Cheffings & Farrell (2005) as  
237 'vulnerable' and 'near threatened' respectively in a UK context were recorded in low  
238 numbers within the background vegetation but were not recorded from the dung samples. A  
239 third species, *Viola persicifolia* (classified as 'critically endangered'), is known to have  
240 occurred at the study site until recently but was not recorded in the background vegetation or  
241 the dung samples in the current survey.

242 All species which germinated from the seedling emergence experiment were also found  
243 within the background vegetation. A total of 2548 seedlings of 41 species (30.37% of all  
244 background species) from 18 plant families were recorded from the dung samples (Table 2).  
245 Graminoids accounted for 48.78% of all species and 82.03% of all seedlings, whilst forbs  
246 made up 51.22% of species but only 17.97% of all seedlings. The mean number of  
247 germinable seeds for each collection date was 212.33/kg, with the highest number of seeds/kg  
248 found in mid-August (720/kg) (figure 1). The greatest number of species was found in the

**Comment [mh2]:** Combine table 1 and 2; this will more clearly show the non-germinating background vegetation species

**Comment [mh3]:** Nonetheless *Plantago major*, *Poa annua* and *P. pratensis* are mentioned to germinate from the dung (table 2) and are not mentioned from the background vegetation (table 1).

**Comment [mh4]:** Combine with table 1



249 mid-September sample, and the lowest number in the mid-June sample (figure 2). The  
250 *Juncaceae* and *Poaceae* were the most dominant plant families in the dung samples,  
251 accounting for 34.14% of all species (12.19% and 21.95% respectively), and 80.49% of all  
252 seedlings (64.83% and 15.66% respectively). *Berula erecta*, *Lythrum salicaria* and  
253 *Phragmites australis* were only present in winter samples.

254 A small number of species that germinated from the samples could be categorised as  
255 specialist fen plants within a UK context (Rodwell 1991) (e.g. *Berula erecta*, *Juncus*  
256 *subnodulosus*, *Carex panicea*, *Galium uliginosum*), whilst the majority of germinants were  
257 generalists known from a variety of other UK grassland or woodland habitats (e.g.  
258 *Calamagrostis epigejos*, *Carex flacca*, *Carex otrubae*, *Plantago lanceolata*, *Urtica dioica*).  
259 However, a vegetation classification using all species present in the dung resulted in close  
260 affinities to a *Cirsio-Molinietum* fen meadow assemblage.

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261 Traits for background vegetation and dung samples are summarised in Table 3. There  
262 were significant ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) differences between dung and background vegetation for seven of  
263 the thirteen traits measured. Mean values for seed release heights (minimum and maximum)  
264 and dispersule weight were significantly lower in species found in the dung, whilst dung  
265 species had significantly higher seed bank persistence, inferred Ellenberg nitrogen and light  
266 values, and marginally significantly greater numbers of seeds per shoot.

267

Background species	DOMIN score	Background species	DOMIN score
<i>Agrostis stolonifera</i> *	5	<i>Lycopus europaeus</i> *	2
<i>Angelica sylvestris</i>	1	<i>Lysimachia vulgaris</i>	2
<i>Berula erecta</i> *	2	<i>Lythrum salicaria</i> *	2
<i>Calamagrostis canescens</i>	5	<i>Mentha aquatica</i> *	3
<i>Calamagrostis epigejos</i> *	4	<i>Molinia caerulea</i>	4
<i>Calystegia sepium</i>	3	<i>Myosotis laxa</i>	1

<i>Carex disticha</i> *	2	<i>Phalaris arundinacea</i>	4
<i>Carex flacca</i> *	1	<i>Phleum pratense</i> s.s.*	2
<i>Carex hostiana</i>	2	<i>Phragmites australis</i>	4
<i>Carex lepidocarpa</i>	2	<i>Poa trivialis</i> *	4
<i>Carex otrubae</i> *	3	<i>Polygala vulgaris</i>	1
<i>Carex panicea</i> *	2	<i>Populus canadensis</i> *	1
<i>Carex riparia</i>	1	<i>Potentilla erecta</i>	1
<i>Centaurea nigra</i>	1	<i>Potentilla reptans</i> *	2
<i>Cirsium dissectum</i>	2	<i>Primula veris</i>	1
<i>Cirsium palustre</i>	2	<i>Prunella vulgaris</i> *	2
<i>Cladium mariscus</i>	4	<i>Ranunculus flammula</i>	2
<i>Dactylhoriza incarnata</i>	1	<i>Rhinanthus minor</i>	3
<i>Deschampsia cespitosa</i>	2	<i>Salix cineraea</i> *	3
<i>Epilobium ciliatum</i> *	1	<i>Salix repens</i>	3
<i>Epilobium hirsutum</i> *	3	<i>Samolus valerandi</i> *	2
<i>Epilobium tetragonum</i> *	1	<i>Schrophularia auriculata</i>	2
<i>Eupatorium cannabinum</i> *	3	<i>Scutellaria galericulata</i>	3
<i>Fillipendula ulmaria</i>	2	<i>Silene flos-cuculi</i>	2
<i>Galium palustre</i>	3	<i>Solanum dulcamara</i> *	2
<i>Galium uliginosum</i> *	2	<i>Succisa pratensis</i>	2
<i>Glechoma hederacea</i>	3	<i>Symphytum officinale</i>	3
<i>Glyceria declinata</i> *	1	<i>Thalictrum flavum</i>	2
<i>Glyceria fluitans</i> *	1	<i>Thelypteris palustris</i>	2
<i>Hydrocotyle vulgaris</i>	2	<i>Thyselium palustre</i>	1
<i>Iris pseudacorus</i>	3	<i>Trifolium pratense</i> *	1
<i>Juncus articulatus</i> *	2	<i>Triglochin palustre</i>	1
<i>Juncus bufonius</i> *	2	<i>Typha latifolia</i> *	2
<i>Juncus effusus</i> *	1	<i>Urtica dioica</i> *	2
<i>Juncus inflexus</i> *	3	<i>Valeriana dioica</i>	2
<i>Juncus subnodulosus</i> *	4	<i>Valeriana officinalis</i>	2

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<i>Lathyrus palustris</i>	1	<i>Veronica beccabunga</i> *	2
<i>Linum catharticum</i>	2	<i>Veronica catenata</i> *	1
<i>Luzula multiflora</i> *	1	<i>Vicia cracca</i>	3

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269 Table 1. Plant species recorded from the background vegetation.

270 Species which were estimated at  $\geq 4\%$  cover across the 56ha study area are listed, together with species  
271 estimated as  $\leq 4\%$  cover but categorised as constituent species of a main fen vegetation type (Rodwell 1992)  
272 and/or species which germinated from the dung samples. Species marked with an \* denote presence in both the  
273 background vegetation and dung samples. DOMIN scale: 1 =  $<4\%$  (few individuals); 2 =  $<4\%$  (several  
274 individuals); 3 =  $<4\%$  (many individuals); 4 = 4–10%; 5 = 11–25%. Cover/abundance for an individual species  
275 did not exceed 25%.

276

species	Family	Mean abundance/kg	seed presence (no. of samples)	peak abundance (month)
<i>Agrostis stolonifera</i>	Poaceae	27.64	11	August
<i>Berula erecta</i>	Apiaceae	12	2	April
<i>Calamagrostis epigejos</i>	Poaceae	1.67	3	September
<i>Carex disticha</i>	Cyperaceae	3.67	3	August
<i>Carex flacca</i>	Cyperaceae	4.67	3	July
<i>Carex otrubae</i>	Cyperaceae	3.33	3	July
<i>Carex panicea</i>	Cyperaceae	2.5	4	August
<i>Epilobium ciliatum</i>	Onagraceae	2.5	2	August
<i>Epilobium hirsutum</i>	Onagraceae	4	4	October
<i>Epilobium tetragonum</i>	Onagraceae	1	2	December
<i>Eupatorium cannabinum</i>	Asteraceae	1.75	4	October
<i>Galium uliginosum</i>	Rubiaceae	2.33	3	January

<i>Glyceria declinata</i>	Poaceae	3	1	December
<i>Glyceria fluitans</i>	Poaceae	2	2	December
<i>Juncus articulatus</i>	Juncaceae	97.33	9	August
<i>Juncus bufonius</i>	Juncaceae	63.63	8	August
<i>Juncus effusus</i>	Juncaceae	2.5	2	September
<i>Juncus inflexus</i>	Juncaceae	18.89	9	August
<i>Juncus subnodulosus</i>	Juncaceae	10.88	8	September
<i>Luzula multiflora</i>	Juncaceae	2	1	September
<i>Lycopus europaeus</i>	Lamiaceae	4.5	2	January
<i>Lythrum salicaria</i>	Lythraceae	3	1	December
<i>Mentha aquatica</i>	Lamiaceae	2.67	3	October
<i>Phleum pratense</i>	Poaceae	1	1	October
<i>Phragmites australis</i>	Poaceae	5	1	December
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i>	Plantaginaceae	2.5	2	August
<i>Plantago major</i>	Plantaginaceae	14.14	7	August
<i>Poa annua</i>	Poaceae	3.33	3	July
<i>Poa pratensis</i>	Poaceae	2.25	4	August
<i>Poa trivialis</i>	Poaceae	11.6	5	August
<i>Populus canadensis</i>	Salicaceae	1.5	2	July
<i>Potentilla reptans</i>	Rosaceae	4	1	September
<i>Prunella vulgaris</i>	Lamiaceae	2.57	7	September
<i>Salix cinerea</i>	Salicaceae	1.5	2	July

<i>Samolus valerandi</i>	Primulaceae	5.17	6	August
<i>Solanum dulcamara</i>	Solanaceae	5	2	October
<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	Fabaceae	2	2	December
<i>Typha latifolia</i>	Typhaceae	3	1	July
<i>Urtica dioica</i>	Urticaceae	45.5	4	September
<i>Veronica beccabunga</i>	Scrophulariaceae	6	2	September
<i>Veronica catenata</i>	Scrophulariaceae	4.33	3	July

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278 Table 2. Plant species which germinated from Konik dung samples. Mean abundance is measured as seeds/kg  
279 dry dung. Presence refers to the total number of samples (n=12) a species was recorded from. Peak abundance  
280 refers to the sample month with the highest recorded number of seedlings per species.

281

Trait	Background vegetation (mean)	Konik dung (mean)	P value	t
Dispersule weight (mg)	2.88	2.08	<0.001	-11.61
Dispersule shape (length/breadth ratio)	1.78	1.8	0.668	0.44
Ellenberg Light (L)	6.95	7.05	0.038	2.36
Ellenberg Nitrogen (N)	5.07	5.48	0.046	1.96
Ellenberg Moisture (F)	6.93	7.38	0.124	1.67
Competitor value (C)	0.43	0.45	0.61	0.52
Stress-tolerator value (S)	0.25	0.24	0.348	-0.98
Ruderal value (R)	0.33	0.31	0.698	0.4
Seed bank longevity	0.33	0.48	<0.001	8.61
seed release height (cm) min	32.75	26.49	<0.001	-5.02
seed release height (cm) max	111.62	86.31	<0.001	-8.61
seed number per shoot	15497.8	32420.55	0.052	2.18

Table 3: Results of analysis of plant traits (overall mean values) for species recorded in the standing vegetation and in the Konik dung using one-sample t-tests. Mean values for each trait for species germinating from dung samples were calculated by presence of species in each sample (n=12) and the associated trait value. Background vegetation trait values were calculated by the presence of species in the vegetation and the associated trait value. Dispersule weight: 1 =  $\leq 20$  mg; 2 = 0.21-0.50 mg; 3 = 0.51-1.00 mg; 4 = 1.01-2.00 mg; 5 = 2.01-10 mg. Dispersule shape is based on length/breadth ratio, where 1 =  $\leq 1.5$ ; 2 = 1.5-2.5; 3 =  $\geq 2.5$ . Ellenberg L (light): 5 = plants of semi-shade, rarely in full light; 6 = intermediate between 5 and 7; 7 = plants of generally well lit places. Ellenberg N (nutrient): 3 = infertile sites; 4 = intermediate between 3 and 5; 5 = sites of intermediate fertility; 6 = intermediate between 5 and 7; 7 = rich, fertile soils. Ellenberg F (moisture): 5 = average dampness; 6 = intermediate between 5 and 7; 7 = constantly moist or damp soils. Seed bank longevity index ranges from short-lived (0) to long-lived (1).

**Comment [mh5]:** From the text, I conclude that the plant traits values of **all** background vegetation species are included in the calculation of a mean, and not merely the species that did not germinate from the dung samples; nonetheless the purpose of this table and comparison is to find out whether these plant traits are significantly different between germinating seeds and non-germinating seeds that are present in the background vegetation. You would probably find much stronger differences between both then in the present case, in which you include all background vegetation species; you should at least add a column with plant trait means of the background vegetation species that did not germinate from the dung samples. Of course, this assumes that seeds of all background vegetation species **could** (not so if the species remain sterile) **and were** digested by the horses (not so if they are toxic or in any other way defended against grazing).

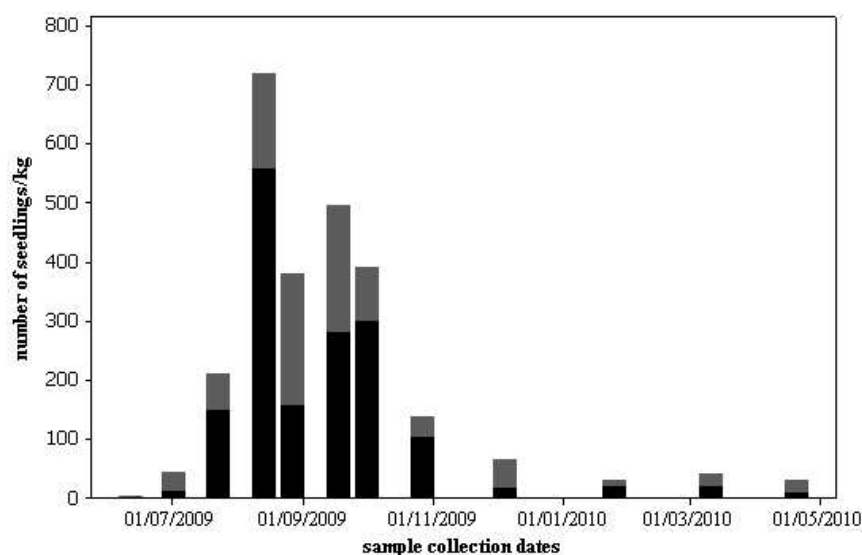


Figure 1: mean number of germinable seeds/kg (dry weight) from dung samples collected June 2009 – May 2010. Black shaded areas represent the number of seedlings belonging to the *Juncaceae*.



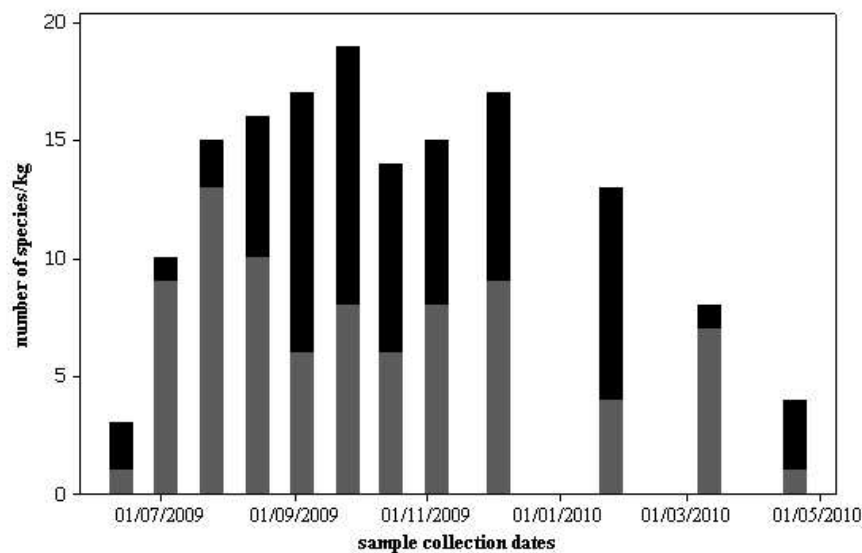


Figure 2: total number of plant species per collection date/dry kg of Konik dung. Black shaded area represents the total number of species which germinated from each dung samples. Grey shaded area represents the number of graminoid species which germinated from each sample.

## Discussion

Almost one third of the available species pool was present in Konik dung samples, a value which is similar to that found in previous studies in other habitats (e.g. Malo & Suárez 1995; Traba et al. 2003; Kuiters & Huiskes 2010) and demonstrates the potential importance of endozoochorous dispersal for plants found in temperate fens. It is possible that sub-optimal germination conditions for some species in the seedling emergence study or species rarity in the background vegetation led to an underestimation of plants capable of surviving internal transportation.

Based on our seedling emergence results free-roaming horses have the ability to transport hundreds of thousands of seeds in each calendar year (see also Cosyns et al 2005a; Jaroszewicz et al. 2009; Kuiters & Huiskes 2010) and have the potential to disperse the

**Comment [mh6]:** The first to mention the enormous potential of endozoochorous dispersal through two horse breeds, among which Konik was Cosyns et al 2005a: table 4.

component species of a range of vegetation types recorded within the study area. The high proportion of viable graminoid seeds recorded from the samples reflects similar results from other endozoochorous studies in other habitats (Welch 1985; Dai 2000; Mouissie 2004; but see Malo & Suarez 1995). However, germination and establishment of internally dispersed seeds under natural field conditions, post-dispersal, is likely to be substantially lower than seedling emergence results suggest as they are affected by a number of biotic and abiotic filters. These include seed predation, modified hydrology or soils, a deficiency of species-specific germination cues and competition from existing species in the sward, (Pywell et al. 2002; Hobbs & Norton 2004) though competition may initially be moderated by the suppression of vegetation resulting from deposition of seeds in a dung package. An example of the disparity between controlled seedling emergence results and natural outcomes is given in a study undertaken by Cosyns et al. (2006) in which less than 5% of the high numbers of viable monocotyledon seeds recorded in seedling emergence studies successfully established in the field after a three month period. In contrast, although their study found that low numbers of dicotyledon seeds were dispersed, they achieved a higher sward cover and contributed to greater species-richness in natural conditions after one year. Consequently, caution should be used regarding the interpretation of results due to considerable differences between glasshouse and field conditions (Eichberg et al. 2007).

The highest number of species per sample occurred in late September, coinciding with the conclusion of flowering and peak seed production for the majority of species within the background vegetation (Stace 2010). The relationship between seed production and dung seed density has previously been demonstrated in studies investigating endozoochorous dispersal in calcareous grasslands (Bakker & Olff 2003) and heathland (Mouissie et al. 2005). Following this peak, the number of species recorded in the dung falls away, before briefly rising to a second peak in December. The fall in the number of species recorded between

340 these two peaks may be due to seed mortality or to seed fall from species that retain fruits on  
341 the parent plant for only a short period of time, combined with a temporary increase in the  
342 abundance of palatable species with seed traits that are not conducive to endozoochorous  
343 dispersal. The second species abundance peak which then follows in the winter could be  
344 linked to a reduced palatable vegetation resource and the browsing of species which retain  
345 seeds intact on the parent plant for a prolonged period of time. The presence of relatively  
346 high numbers of species in the December sampling date points to the importance of collecting  
347 samples outside of the main growing season, particularly as three of the species which were  
348 only recorded in the winter months of our study are strongly associated with wetland or fen  
349 vegetation. Mouissie et al. (2005) also found that two constituent species of heathland  
350 vegetation (*Calluna vulgaris* and *Erica tetralix*) were only dispersed in the winter months.

351 | Plant trait results demonstrated that there was a wide range of characteristics that are  
352 conducive to internal dispersal, supporting Janzen's (1984) central hypothesis. Species of fen  
353 vegetation dispersed via endozoochory had a more persistent seed bank than species which  
354 were not dispersed, were more light-demanding, had higher seed production rates and may  
355 also establish in sites of higher fertility. These traits could be viewed as advantageous for  
356 dispersal through dung, considering the high level of nutrients contained within the growing  
357 medium, the subsequent creation of areas of bare ground and initial low levels of competition  
358 from the surrounding vegetation. For example, producing large numbers of small seeds  
359 would increase opportunities for consumption by unselective grazing, and the recruitment  
360 opportunities created by grazing disturbance would favour species that rely on an open sward  
361 and minimal competition for germination and establishment.

362 Pakeman et al. (2001, 2002) suggested that the traits which are necessary to survive  
363 ingestion by animals are similar to those that permit long term survival in the soil. Our data,  
364 together with previous seed bank work undertaken at the study site (Stroh et al. 2010),

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365 support this supposition. It may be that similarities between dispersal strategies reflect traits  
366 which are necessary to survive being interred within another medium (e.g. gut, dung or soil)  
367 for a prolonged period of time. In contrast, alternative 'external' dispersal mechanisms  
368 (ectozoochory) by grazing animals are more likely to transport short-lived seeds and in doing  
369 so complement species dispersed by endozoochory (Couvreur et al. 2004).

370 The two background species categorised as 'rare' in a UK context (*Lathyrus palustris*  
371 and *Thyselium palustre*) were not identified in the dung samples. One explanation for this  
372 absence may be simply that the seeds of these species were not consumed due to the large  
373 size of the study area and/or the low numbers of individual plants in the background  
374 vegetation. Alternatively, it may be that the seeds of these species were consumed but did  
375 not survive the digestive process due to associated functional traits. As stated earlier, one  
376 explanation for the inability to survive the digestive process may be linked to the length of  
377 time a seed can survive as a viable germinant in the soil seed bank. Both species are known  
378 to have transient (<1 year survival) seed banks (Thompson et al. 1997), and this deterrent to  
379 internal dispersal may also be applicable to other temperate fen species (e.g. *Cirsium*  
380 *dissectum*, *Carex lepidocarpa*, *Cladium mariscus*, *Succisa pratensis*, *Rhinanthus minor*)  
381 found in the current study which are known to have a transient seed bank too (e.g. Thompson  
382 et al. 1997; Matus et al. 2003). In the cases of *L. palustris* and *T. palustre*, long-distance  
383 dispersal strategies are more likely to be adapted to hydrochorous dispersal (see Vaughan  
384 1978; Meredith & Grubb 1993).

Deleted: *Rhinanthus*

385 Seed weight was significantly lower for dung-dispersed species, but seed shape was not  
386 significantly different from non-dispersed species, with the mean dimensions suggesting a  
387 shape which was more elongate than rounded. This was somewhat surprising, as many  
388 studies have concluded that small, rounded seeds are adapted to endozoochorous dispersal  
389 (e.g. Bruun & Fritzboeger 2002; Pakeman et al. 2002; but see Cosyns & Hoffmann 2005b).

**Comment [mh7]:** You did not test this, since you included all background vegetation species, also those that did germinate from dung; if you did not, then this should be clearly stated (see also remark on table 3 and line 221)



390 However, the mean seed weight for dispersed species does describe a small and very light  
391 seed. Such an inconspicuous size is an advantage during the digestive process as large and  
392 heavy diaspores are more likely to be damaged by the molar mill (Murphy et al. 1989).  
393 Species that produce small and light seeds are also more likely to produce greater quantities  
394 of seed (Jakobsson & Eriksson 2000) and in doing so increase the probability of dispersal  
395 potential from the parent plant (Bruun & Poschlod 2006). The results of our analysis with  
396 regard to the marginally but still significantly greater number of seeds produced per shoot for  
397 sample species support this assertion.

398 The significant difference between dung samples and background vegetation found for  
399 seed release heights may be explained by **at least** two factors. Firstly, the lower minimum  
400 and maximum seed release heights for endozoochorous species are likely to be linked to the  
401 grazing strategies of large herbivores, and specifically in this instance Koniks, which  
402 preferentially graze a shorter sward because of the higher nutritional value of young plant  
403 growth (Van Braeckel & Van Looy 2002 but see Naujeck & Hill 2005). This in turn would  
404 inadvertently result in the unselective ingestion of plants and seeds at the same height in the  
405 surrounding vegetation as well as those selected for consumption. Secondly, seeds of plants  
406 that have a relatively tall mean height in the sward may be more likely to have an  
407 anemochorous dispersal strategy, as the release height is such that seeds of tall plants will  
408 have a higher probability of clearing the surrounding vegetation (e.g. Davies & Sheley 2007).

409 Historically (from around 2,500 years ago when the most recent fen peats were formed in  
410 East Anglia (Godwin 1939) until fen drainage during the 17<sup>th</sup> century), wild herbivores would  
411 have browsed floodplain fens, but their abundance and hence impact is likely to have been  
412 greatest at the floodplain margins where there would have been firmer ground for resting and,  
413 for some species, creation of latrines. This combination of increased grazing intensity and  
414 nutrient return through dung could have resulted in the development of vegetation

**Comment [mh8]:**

**Comment [mh9R8]:** On the long run, grazing does diminish the number of generative shoots, and hence the number of seeds produced.

assemblages containing many species that are now considered typical of “fen meadows”. As human beings began to exploit the wetlands, their impact too would have been greatest at the floodplain margin, creating mowing meadows and herding their livestock on the shallower peat. In situations such as those found at the study site, where NNR vegetation is adjacent to large-scale habitat restoration land, re-instating free-roaming herds which are able to roam from NNR vegetation onto ex-arable restoration land could re-establish previously lost dispersal links through the landscape. Free-roaming grazing animals thus have the potential to be an effective tool for diversifying restoration vegetation, particularly in areas which share similarities to floodplain margins such as wetland drawdown zones.

## **Conclusions**

The loss of landscape dispersal mechanisms has been directly associated with the loss of plant diversity in northwest Europe in the past hundred years (Ozinga et al. 2009). In this context, free-roaming grazing animals used as mobile links between plant populations have the potential to become important vectors in helping to maintain or restore vegetation through natural colonisation and increased gene flow between extant populations. This study has demonstrated that Koniks may disperse the viable seeds of a wide range of temperate fen species throughout the year, and indicates that optimum times for the movement of grazing animals and potential dispersal of germinable seeds are not restricted simply to the growing season. The conservation grazing system at Wicken Fen NNR and the Wicken Vision both have year-round grazing systems with free-roaming Koniks. If a link is created between the NNR and the restoration land, then free-roaming grazing herds have the potential to be an effective tool for diversifying restoration vegetation that, at the Wicken Vision site, is developing through natural regeneration.

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